

# Fast Genetic Variation among Coliphage Quasispecies Revealed by a Random Amplified Polymorphic DNA (RAPD) Analysis

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Genetic analysis was conducted on newly isolated coliphages from soil by using a RAPD assay. From the initial result, the coliphages were turned out to be different from one another but were closely related to  $\phi\lambda$  due to the fact that they shared the same RAPD marker in which other T phage testings failed to show. By using the primers EC01 or EC02, a fast genetic mutation of  $\phi$ C1 was found by producing specific RAPD markers on the phages from the first filial progeny to the second filial progeny. When we made a RAPD assay with combined primers (EC01, EC05 and EC08), the genetic mutation was again confirmed in  $\phi$ C1. The assay detection showed mutations in other coliphages such as  $\phi$ C2 and  $\phi$ C3 by revealing specific RAPD bands among different progeny phages, where genetic instability of the coliphages is implied.

**Key Words:** Random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD), coliphages, genetic variation, quasispecies

Coliphages are bacterial viruses harbored in *Escherichia coli*. And they play an important role in this complex and diverse environment for its microbial population. Especially soil coliphages are great in number so that they provide very good sources for studying genetic diversity (15). And that is proved by many other researchers who continuously isolate new coliphages (4,5).

The random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) analysis was originally devised by Williams *et al.* (13) and Welsh and McClelland (11) as an *in vitro* DNA amplification technique. It employs short synthetic oligonucleotides as a random primer to exponentially increase the template DNA by a polymerase chain reaction. The technique is known to be a very useful means of analyzing genetic structures and relationships in plants (13), fungi (16), bacterial species (2,7), animals (6) and viruses (5). It is now widely used in the area of studying genetic mapping, diagnostics, and taxonomy (12).

This study was designed to find genetic relationships among the isolated coliphages as a continuing study for characterization of the coliphages isolated from soil. Since genetic variation of the species usually starts from a minor nucleotide change and its accumulation, we ap-

plied the RAPD technique which provides highly sensitive detection in distinguishing nucleotide difference (14). In fact, such a mutation would cause a quasispecies in the population of coliphages that is derived from the continuous emergence of mutant viruses during replication. Thus, we also investigated genomes of the successively propagating progeny of the coliphages by the RAPD assay in order to understand the degree of variation which occur in the coliphages. That is to understand, the characteristics of genetic variation which occur among many animal viruses and which give dynamic equilibrium for genetic diversity in many types of viruses.

## Materials and Methods

### Preparation of coliphages and their progenies

Coliphages were isolated from wet soil of paddy fields near Keimyung University and their host used was *Escherichia coli* C1 (KCTC #2282). After the isolation of coliphages  $\phi$ C1,  $\phi$ C2,  $\phi$ C3 and  $\phi$ C4, the coliphages were purified and characterized as mentioned in Kwon (5). Progeny phages (1st filiation to 4th filiation) were obtained by repeating plaque assays described in Sinsheimer (10). Medium used was Luria broth (LB) which was

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made from polypeptone 10 g, yeast extract 5 g, NaCl 5 g, and glucose 1 g in 1,000 ml of distilled water. When necessary, agarose was added to LB for making 1.5% agar plates.

### Coliphage DNA extraction

Phage particles were collected in TEM (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH7.6; 1 mM EDTA; 10 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>). After two runs of differential centrifugation (2,500 rpm with Vision 6000CF and 12,000 rpm with Vision VS15000), a ml of supernatant solution was mixed with 10 µl RNase (10 mg/ml) and 2.5 µl DNase I (5 mg/ml). After incubation at 37°C for 3 hours, the mixture was added with 10 µl of proteinase K (20 mg/ml) and incubated at 37°C overnight. Subsequently, the mixture was treated twice with phenol : chloroform : isoamyl alcohol (25 : 24 : 1) and DNA was collected after ethanol precipitation. RNase was treated once more to the DNA in order to make sure the removal of the bacterial ribosomal RNA. After phenol treatment and ethanol precipitation, the DNA was analyzed by electrophoresis to measure the size of coliphage genomes (data not shown). For a RAPD assay, all phage DNA were purified once again by electrophoresis using 0.7% agarose gel. Then, 10 or 20 µl of DNA solution was applied directly to the PCR reaction. The control phage (ϕT2, ϕT4, ϕT5, ϕT7, and ϕλ) DNAs used in this experiment were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co.

### Random primers

Random primers used in this experiment were obtained from Dr. John Hobbs of University of British Columbia, Vancouver. Among them, oligonucleotides (10 mer) having GC contents of 50~80% were applied for the purpose of phage genome amplification. The nucleotide sequences of random primers which gave successful results throughout this study, are listed in Table 1.

**Table 1.** Nucleotide sequences of random primers used in this

Primers	Sequences	G/C%
EC01	5'-GCGGCTGGAG-3'	80
EC02	5'-GCGGTTGAGG-3'	70
EC03	5'-AGCAGCGTGG-3'	70
EC04	5'-GAAGGCTCTG-3'	60
EC05	5'-TGTCGGTTGC-3'	60
EC06	5'-GTATTGCCCT-3'	50
EC07	5'-TGTACGTGAC-3'	50
EC08	5'-GCTTGTGAAC-3'	50
EC09	5'-CTTTCGTGCT-3'	50

### RAPD assay using PCR

Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was carried out to amplify the coliphage genomic DNA with many random primers. The reaction condition was as follows: Each 10 µl of purified phage DNA was added to 40 µl of PCR reaction mixture, containing 10X *Taq* buffer, 40 mM dNTPs, oligonucleotide primers (200 pmol each), and 1 unit of *Taq* DNA polymerase (Perkin-Elmer). The 10X *Taq* buffer contained 500 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.3), 25 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> and 0.1% gelatin. Two drops of mineral oil were added to each reaction tube. In an automatic thermocycler (Applied, UK), the reaction tubes were subjected to following temperature cycles: 95°C for one minute, 40°C for one minute and 72°C for two minutes. After 42 cycles of amplification, the samples were incubated for 10 minutes at 72°C.

### Agarose gel electrophoresis and UV photography

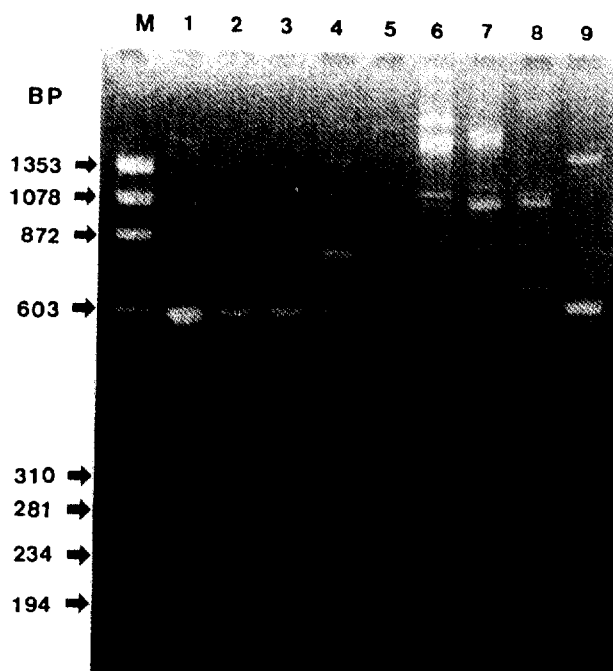
One fifth of the PCR reaction (10 µl) was loaded on a gel containing 2% NuSieve GTG agarose (FMC) in Tris-Borate buffer for electrophoresis. For convenience, 0.5 µl of ethidium bromide solution (10 mg/ml) was directly added to each 10 ml agarose solution for DNA staining. After running the gel, it was subjected to UV photography as described by Sambrook *et al.* (9) in order to verify the PCR reaction results.

## Results and Discussion

### Some aspects of a RAPD assay for coliphages

Since coliphages are one of the simplest organisms and they have very small size genomes compared with larger and more complex genomes of higher organisms, we expected that RAPD results of coliphages would be different from other RAPD works. For instance, we thought that the genomic DNA of coliphages would not yield as many RAPD bands as RAPD bands found in the samples of most eukaryote genomes because the size of the coliphage genomes was extremely small ( $3 \times 10^6$  bp vs.  $3 \times 10^9$  bp), leading to lessening the chance for binding random primers.

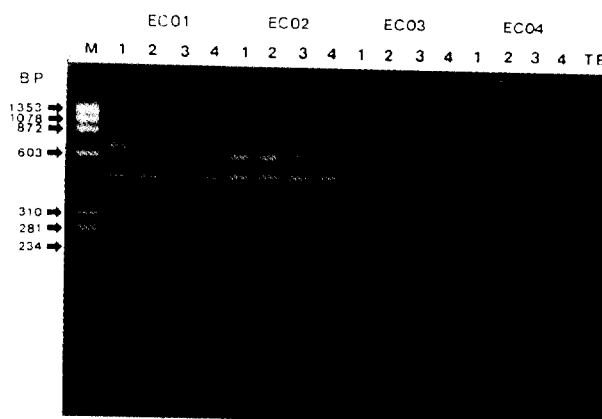
In fact, we did fail to produce RAPD bands from the genomes of coliphages with most of the random primers tested but the nucleotide sequences of the few random primers which were suitable to amplify the coliphage DNA, are listed in Table 1. Typical RAPD banding patterns for the coliphages are presented in Fig. 1. A very strong RAPD band was found with the DNA size of 603 base pairs. The band appeared in all coliphage DNA samples (lanes 1 to 4) as a coliphage marker whereas all T phages failed to produce the 603 bp band (lanes 5 to 8). However, ϕλ (lane 9) showed the same 603 bp band which would im-



**Fig. 1.** Typical random amplified polymorphic DNA banding patterns of various coliphages. A RAPD assay was done with two kinds of random primers, ECO2 and ECO9. PCR was carried out with 40 thermocycles at 95°C denaturation for 1 minute, 40°C annealing for 1 minute and 72°C polymerization for 2 minutes. Coliphage DNAs used were:  $\phi$ C1,  $\phi$ C2,  $\phi$ C3,  $\phi$ C4,  $\phi$ T2,  $\phi$ T4,  $\phi$ T5,  $\phi$ T7 and  $\phi\lambda$  (lanes 1 to 9, respectively). M is a  $\phi$ X174 *Hae*III digested DNA (0.2  $\mu$ g).

ply that the isolated coliphages were more closely related to  $\phi\lambda$  than the T phages. The coliphages and T phages were also distinguished by the difference in the RAPD patterns presented in Fig 1. The RAPD band patterns of T phages used as controls (lanes 5 to 8) were very different from those of coliphages (lanes 1 to 4). With the same primers (ECO2 and ECO9), the genomes of T phages showed many high molecular weight DNA bands whereas all four coliphages showed relatively smaller RAPD bands. Then, we concluded that the RAPD analysis could be used to identify the nature of coliphages at the level of their genomic DNAs that were different between coliphages and T phages.

We also examined an effect of GC contents of the random primers that may be a critical parameter for ensuring successful RAPD assays throughout this study. Since the GC contents of primers is one of the key factors affecting primer melting temperature ( $T_m$ ), they will exert upon primer binding to the templates during polymerase chain reaction (8). We tested the primers having GC contents from 60% (EC04,  $T_m$ : 32°C) to 80% (EC01,  $T_m$ : 36°C) with the  $\phi$ C1 DNA that was extracted from different progeny (first filiation to 4th fil-

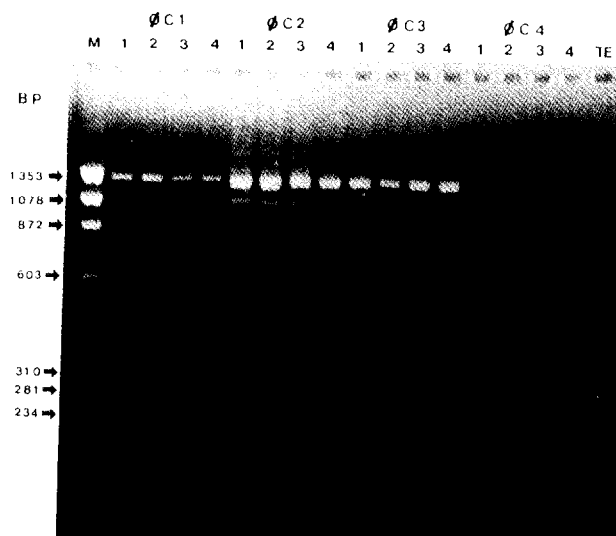


**Fig. 2.** Effects of GC contents of the random primers used for the RAPD analysis. The GC contents of used primers were 80% (EC01), 70% (EC02), 70% (EC03), 60% (EC04). The random primer sequences are shown in Table 1. M is a DNA marker (0.2  $\mu$ g of  $\phi$ X174 *Hae*III digested) and TE is referred to as  $T_{10}E_1$  buffer which was used as a PCR negative control. 1 (1st filial progeny); 2 (2nd filial progeny); 3 (3rd filial progeny); 4 (4th filial progeny). Sharp arrows( $\rightarrow$ ) indicate location of specific RAPD markers for primers EC01 and EC02. Sample DNA used was coliphage  $\phi$ C1. PCR conditions were mentioned in Materials and Methods.

iation). The results are shown in Fig. 2. With the primer EC01, it revealed a more specific marker that was detected only from the first filial progeny of C1 (lane 1) while other successive filial progeny did not produce the band just above 603 bp DNA (arrow). A primer EC02 also produced a specific RAPD marker (arrow) near 310 bp DNA, which was found in the F2 to F4 but not in the F1 progeny. In other words, the DNA sequence of the first filial progeny of  $\phi$ C1 was not the same as other successive filial progeny (F2 to F4). There were nucleotide changes from the genome of F2 progeny. This evidence tells us that DNA sequence of the first filial progeny of  $\phi$ C1 was different from that of other successive filial progenies of  $\phi$ C1. Thus, we can refer them as 'quasispecies' of coliphage  $\phi$ C1 because they differed in their nucleotide sequences from the wild type of  $\phi$ C1 (1). The 2nd filial coliphage of the  $\phi$ C1 was a molecular variant that consisted of the  $\phi$ C1 quasispecies.

#### RAPD markers revealing conserved sequence of the isolated coliphages

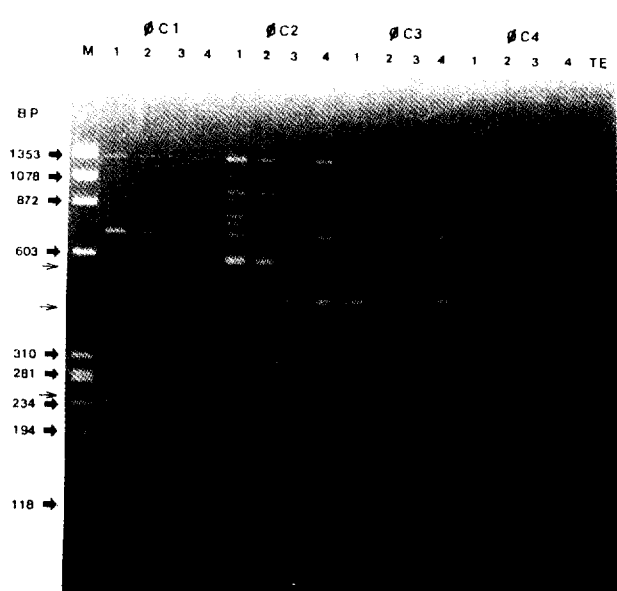
Since quasispecies of the  $\phi$ C1 also produced common RAPD markers as shown in Fig. 2 (EC03), a test was developed to verify the existence of coliphage quasispecies with a combined set of random primers that is used in combination of three different kinds of primers such as primers EC01, EC06 and EC07. We expected that there would be more RAPD bands gen-



**Fig. 3.** Mostly conserved DNA bands through the coliphages with random primers EC01, EC06 and EC07. Lane descriptions are M (0.5  $\mu$ g of  $\phi$ X174 *Hae*III digested); 1 (1st filial progeny); 2 (2nd filial progeny); 3 (3rd filial progeny); 4 (4th filial progeny) and TE ( $T_{10}E_1$  buffer) as a negative control. From left to right side of the photograph, coliphage DNAs were  $\phi$ C1,  $\phi$ C2,  $\phi$ C3 and  $\phi$ C4. PCR conditions were mentioned in Materials and Methods.

erated after PCR because using the combined primers can amplify a wide variety of genome segment than using a single primer (3). Therefore, it can be resolved more precisely when compared with a single primer. Unexpectedly, this test revealed several strong common RAPD bands that were produced throughout the successive filial progeny, from  $\phi$ C1 to  $\phi$ C4 (Fig. 3). The DNA bands were somewhat high molecular weight DNA bands (e.g., 1,353 bp and 1,078 bp). It was interesting that they appeared throughout all coliphage samples, and we reasoned that the high molecular weight DNA bands were generated from the most conserved DNA sequences of the coliphages. Probably, the DNA bands are related to nucleotide sequences of some phage specific proteins that must be conserved throughout coliphage replication, i.e., polymerases or lytic enzymes that are necessary for fast phage replication and plaque formation. From this result, we can deduce two facts: 1) these strong RAPD markers represent typical RAPD markers of the isolated coliphages which infect mainly *E. coli* C1, 2) among the quasispecies of the coliphages, certain DNA sequences must be preserved for their existence although we found a fast genetic variation occurs in the  $\phi$ C1 progeny. To understand these ideas, a further study is now being carried out at a molecular level.

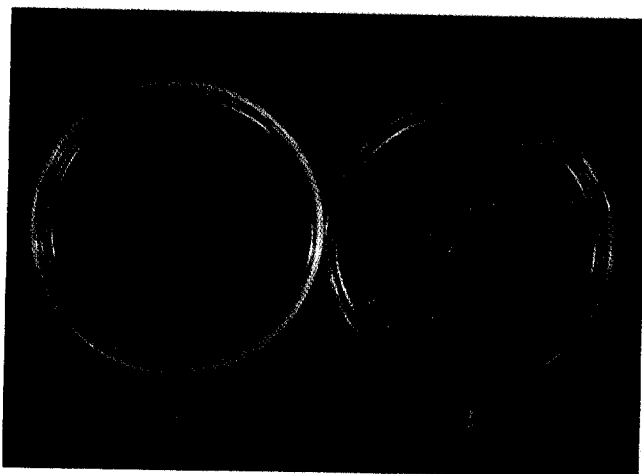
#### Genetic variation among coliphage quasispecies



**Fig. 4.** Fast genetic variation was revealed among the isolated coliphages and the coliphage progeny by the RAPD assay. Some specific RAPD markers of the progeny phages were marked with sharp arrows ( $\rightarrow$ ). Used primers were EC01, EC05 and EC08. From left to right side of the photograph, coliphage DNAs were  $\phi$ C1,  $\phi$ C2,  $\phi$ C3 and  $\phi$ C4. Lane descriptions are M (0.2  $\mu$ g of  $\phi$ X174 *Hae*III digested); 1 (1st filial progeny); 2 (2nd filial progeny); 3 (3rd filial progeny); 4 (4th filial progeny) and TE ( $T_{10}E_1$  buffer) as a negative control.

Although all the isolated coliphages had DNA as their genomes, a fast nucleotide change among  $\phi$ C1 quasispecies was detected by a RAPD assay as shown in Fig. 2. Then the same logic was tested to reveal the genetic variations among the other coliphages and quasispecies with different random primers which would generate different RAPD markers. When a primer set such as EC01, EC05 and EC08 was applied to the samples, surprisingly, a very different RAPD pattern had vividly appeared. It implied that a strong genetic variation had occurred within a relatively very short interval. This variation from generation to generation was shown in Fig. 4.

The  $\phi$ C1 samples again showed the same result we found in the Fig. 2. That is, the first filiation of  $\phi$ C1 had a specific RAPD marker (sharp arrow near 234 bp DNA) that was not found from the 2nd, 3rd, 4th filiation progeny of  $\phi$ C1. This confirmed that there was genetic mutation from F1 to F2.  $\phi$ C2 also revealed one specific RAPD band at the third filiation sample between 603 bp and 310 bp DNA band (lower arrow) while the 2nd filiation of  $\phi$ C3 had a specific RAPD band near 603 bp DNA (upper arrow). In the case of  $\phi$ C4, it was hard to find specific RAPD markers with the combined primer set but genetic mutation among the successive filiation



**Fig. 5.** Plaque morphology of the coliphages  $\phi$ C2 and  $\phi$ C3, which showed very similar RAPD markers in Fig. 3 and Fig. 4.  $\phi$ C2 (panel A) made medium size (4~5 mm) plaques with round margin and  $\phi$ C3 (panel B) made small size (2~3 mm) plaques with rough margin.

was detected by using primer EC02 (data not published).

Thus, some specific RAPD bands found in Fig. 4 simply tell us that dynamic nucleotide mutations were occurring from generation to generation among the isolated coliphages. Although this genetic variation was made in a very short time, it was easily detected by a sensitive method like the RAPD assay. So far, this kind of variation among the quasispecies of coliphages seemed to be insignificant to the coliphage population. However, we now understand that the fast and dynamic mutations could be constantly occurring among the coliphages with DNA genomes. It may eventually cause the accumulation of mutant coliphages that would affect the *E. coli* population dominated in soil.

As a proof, it was found that the RAPD markers of  $\phi$ C2 and  $\phi$ C3 were very similar when we closely examined them in Fig. 4. The fact that the two coliphages were originally isolated from the same soil sample and other supporting data (5) confirmed their closeness on a genetic level. Interestingly enough, their plaque morphology was not the same (Fig. 5). Plaques of  $\phi$ C2 (plate A) were bigger with round margin compared with those of  $\phi$ C3 (plate B) which had small rough margined plaques. This discrepancy tells us that they were mutants derived from a same quasispecies but their genetic variations were fixed as their phenotypes which were demonstrated in their plaque morphology.

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